DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 226 914 PS 013 213

AUTHOR Fischer, Jan Lockwood
TITLE Employer Support for Families with Child Care Needs.
PUB DATE 82
NOTE 42p.
PUB TYPE Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Early Childhood Education; Employed Women; *Employer Attitudes; *Employer Supported Day Care; *Fringe Benefits; Government Role; History; Profiles

ABSTRACT

Present and past employer support for child care is reviewed in this paper. The first half of the discussion is devoted to a general and brief historical survey describing employer support for families needing child care and detailing working mothers' increasing demand for child care services. Also briefly mentioned are government programs encouraging employer support. The remaining half of the document describes types of employer-sponsored child care programs and types of employers sponsoring such programs. Programs described include flexible personnel policies (such as flextime, job sharing, flexiplace), paternity and maternity leave provisions, flexible benefit programs, employer-donated services, resource and referral services, child care program slot reservation services, voucher/vendor programs, family day care home networks, and employer-sponsored child care centers. Types of employers described include those associated with the military, campuses, labor unions, governments, hospitals, and businesses. Related graphs and charts are appended. (RH)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED226814

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

EMPLOYER SUPPORT FOR FAMILIES WITH CHILD CARE NEEDS

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Jan Fischer

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Jan Lockwood Fischer
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
1982

PS013213

INCREASING PUBLIC INTEREST IN EMPLOYER SUPPORT FOR FAMILIES NEEDING CHILD CARE has been shown by a growing number of newspaper articles as well as professional publications and recent research efforts throughout the United States. However, the publication and dissemination of information often lags behind current activity, and is frequently limited in scope. The following overview of employer support for child care past and present is based on contacts with over 150 resources by mail, phone, personal interview and program visitation. The definition, history and current models of employer support are presented here in relation to the changing American labor force and increasing demand for child care. This report summarizes recent government involvement, as well as current activities of the six types of employers offering child care support to employees. The importance of accurate needs assessment, formative evaluation and cost-benefit analysis of programs is emphasized in relation to needs and available resources of the employer, employee and community. The purpose of this paper is to inform rather than to advocate; to clarify rather than to oversimplify. Alfred North Whitehead once cautioned against "thinking that the facts are simple because simplicity is the goal of our quest.....Seek simplicity," he said, "and distrust it" (Johnson, 1947), p.54. The overview presented

here is designed to offer a simple conceptual framework from which to build a better understanding of the complexity of the issues involved.

DEFINITION.

Employer support refers to direct or indirect assistance given by an employer to help provide optimal care for their children during working hours. Employer support for families with child care needs takes many forms, and varies widely among employers and communities. When an employer bears some or all of the cost of the employees' child care services, we refer to "employer-sponsored child care", or ESCC.

HISTORY.

Although there is new and billowing interest, employer support for families with child care needs is not a new idea. Back in 1816, early in the Industrial Revolution, a mill owner and social reformer named Robert Owen set up a child care center for his employees in New Lanark, Scotland. Robert Owen is also credited with sponsoring the first employer-sponsored child care center here in America. Owen believed that industrialists had a responsibility to do something for the children of workers, and he established a child care center for the workers in New Harmony, Indiana in 1822 (Carmony and Elliott, 1980).

While early America's mothers worked out of economic need, some children were left home alone; some were cared for in tenement home nurseries; and some were taken along to the mills and factories with their mothers. The first recorded hospital-sponsored center was a day nursery established in New York City at the Nursery and Child's Hospital in 1854. The center provided care for the children of former patients who went back to work, presumably to ease their load during convalescence (Greenblatt, 1977). Although care was not for employees' children, the program was a forerunner of employer support for centers serving community children. During the Civil War, women worked to manufacture soldiers' clothing and to staff hospitals. A day nursery was set up in Philadelphia in 1863 for the children of these working mothers. Collins (1982) reports that "by 1897, 175 such child care centers had been established in various cities, sponsored by postwar manufacturers, textile industries and supported by hospital employees, factories, settlement houses, civic organizations and church activities." By 1910, there were 450 day nurseries (as day care and child care centers were once called) in America's working class neighborhoods (p. 43). Most of these, however, were sponsored by public or private funds. An industry-based child care center, the King Edward Nursery, was founded by John H. Swisher and Son, Inc. in Jacksonville, Florida in 1939

to care for 75 children up to 24 hours daily. The company paid 5/6 of the operating costs of the center, which served working parents f r nearly 20 years.

The Lanham Act was passed by Congress in 1940 to provide wartime housing and veteran benefits, and subsequent amendments provided for child care centers in 41 states to care for about 600,000 children whose mothers worked in war-related jobs during World War II. Costs were shared by the federal government, local communities and the parents. However, there were not enough Lanham Centers to meet the child care needs of the 25,000 women shipyard workers in Portland, Oregon. So Edward Kaiser, General Manager of the Kaiser Shipyards, built two industry-based centers which operated from 1943 to 1946. The Kaiser Child Service Centers served children 18 months to 12 years of age 24 hours daily 164 days a year, with a well-trained staff, a model facility and comprehensive family services. The Kaiser Centers have become an example of a successful partnership between government and industry in helping employees meet child care needs with a high quality program:

> The company did pay the deficit over and above the income from parent fees <u>but</u> this cost was then passed on to the government as part of the cost of operating the shipyards. In a real

> sense the Kaiser Centers were industry-sponsored, industry-based, industry-supported. But it is also true to say that they were federally supported, through industry (Hymes, 1978), p.55.

After World War II the Lanham child care centers were closed and most women returned home. Employer interest waned, and little support for employee's child care needs was apparent until the 1960's when new tax laws provided an incentive for some employers (Friedman, 1980).

The early 70's showed renewed interest in employer-supported child care programs due to the growing number of mothers in the labor force, and this enthusiasm has been rekindled during the early 80's in the face of growing concern for working parents with children. Historically, women have joined the workforce in large numbers during periods of acute economic need to meet living expenses; or during wartime to supplement the civilian workforce.

WOMEN IN THE WORK FORCE: INCREASING DEMAND FOR CHILD CARE.

Now, as in the past, mothers are entering the workforce in increasing numbers due to economic need. The number of working women with children under 18 has increased from 3½ million in 1947 to nearly 17 million women in 1980, and is

expected to continue to rise (See Graph A, Appendix). Nearly 60 percent of mothers of school-age children are in the labor force, as are more than 40 percent of mothers of children under the age of six (Murray, 1981). The number of working mothers with children under age 6 has increased nearly fourfold in the past 40 years, while the number of working women with children under age 3 has more than doubled in the past 20 years (See Graphs B and C, Appendix).

This trend toward increasing numbers of women in the workforce is not expected to change soon (Hofferth, 1979; O'Connell and others, 1982). The Census Bureau reported in June, 1982 that the number of single parent families has doubled since 1970. According to the Children's Defense Fund (1982), this rapid increase in the number of working mothers has caused a sharp increase in the number of children needing child care services (See Graph D, Appendix). Twenty-two million children under age 14 have one or both parents working full or part time outside the home. Thirteen million children under age 14 have one or both parents working <u>full time</u> outside the home. 1.6 million of these children are cared for in their own home by a relative or non-relative, and approximately 6.2 million children are cared for in day care centers or in family day care homes. This means that less than 60 percent of American children of

parents employed full time have identifiable child care arrangements, and 5.2 million children are without identifiable care. In 1980, there were just over one million spaces in licensed child care centers and family day care homes for the 7.5 million children under six years who needed them (See Graph E, Appendix).

Many will argue that there is not an increasing demand for child care services; that women would not be working unless they had arranged some type of care. However, over 1.8 million of the children between the ages of 3 and 13 are "latchkey children" -- those who are left alone to care for themselves for several hours each day. This situation is well documented (Bronfenbrenner, 1974; Garbarino, 1976; Lynette and Long, 1982).

GOVERNMENT PERSPECTIVE: "A NATIONAL INITIATIVE".

Today's employers, parents and communities are beginning to work together to provide quality care for the growing number of children whose parents work outside the home. The government is encouraging employers to sponsor child care services in two important ways. First, federal, state and local funds have been allocated for innovative projects to strengthen relationships among the family, local child care community and employer. Some notable examples which

receive government funding are Creative Partnerships in Pasadena, the Greater Minneapolis Day Care Association, and Community Coordinated Child Care, or 4-C, offices such as those in Orlando.

The second major source of government support comes from new tax legislation. The Economic Recovery Act of 1981 has made employer-supported child care more attractive to employers by treating non-capital child care expenditures as tax deductible business expenses, and by allowing accelerated cost recovery for capital expenditures. This new law also offers a bigger tax break for lower-income families. The maximum tax credits for individual families were increased from $400 per child to $720; and increased from $800 per family to $1440. Ruth Nadel of the Women's Bureau has referred to this encouragement as "a national initiative", as government reaches out to industry in hopes of forming a new partnership.

"THE PROBLEM OF THE MATCH".

Throughout the nation, conferences are bringing together employers and child care advocates to discuss the benefits and problems of model programs of employer-sponsored child care. "More than 40 conferences on work and family issues have been held in the U.S. during the past two years, often

focusing on employer-sponsored child care" (Manuel, 1982), p.17. Such conferences provide a way for employers to find out what has been done, what is being done and what is possible. Workplace seminars help employees vent their child care concerns, and can also give the employer an insight into current child care needs. For over 5 years, Wheelock College and the Texas Institute for Families have been conducting series of noontime sessions for working parents (Baden and Friedman, 1981).

Employer support can be short term, as an outright cash contribution to an existing center; or longterm, as a resource and referral system. It can be indirect, as flextime and job sharing, or direct, as an on-site center. What an employer expects to gain from his support will depend upon the type and amount of support given. Several employer-sponsored child care projects have claimed <u>increased</u> productivity, easier recruitment, higher morale and public image, as well as a <u>decrease</u> in absenteeism, turnover and workplace stress (Chart A, Appendix). However, it must be pointed out that little actual research has been to date. The field lacks longterm, systematic research to substantiate benefit claims and the generalizability of findings (Dietsch, 1982; Friedman, 1980; Collins and others, 1982). Child care, especially high-quality care, is expensive because it is

labor-intensive. Caregiver salaries, though low by national occupational standards, may take up 70-80% of a center's annual operating budget (Robins, 1978; Robison, 1977).

Ideally, the employer analyzes the costs and benefits of the models in relation to what the employee needs, what the community offers, and what the employer is willing and able to give. This underscores the role of needs assessment. Effective needs assessment is accurate, comprehensive and reflects the changing needs of families with children. A worker requiring infant care today may one day desire job sharing or after school care. Effective assessment of employee and community needs and resources may well determine the success of employer-sponsored child care initiatives. This "problem of the match" is the challenge of balancing the needs and resources of each -- employer, employee, community.

KEY COMPONENTS.

Provision of child care services for today's working parents revolves around three key components ..... acceptability, availability and affordability. First, parents want to know that their children are being well cared for while they are at work. The informed parent expects acceptable, high quality child care designed with his/her

child in mind. Secondly, the care must be readily available when and where the parents need it. Parents look for child care conveniently located, open during the hours they work, and which cares for children the ages of theirs. Just finding out what is available in the community may be very difficult. Also, the care must be affordable relative to the parents' salary. "Child care is the fourth largest expense in the budget of the employed parent" (Collins and others, 1982, based on 1980 Labor Bureau Statistics), p.13. Parents who work need acceptable, available, affordable care for their children, and are beginning to look to their employers for help in meeting child care needs.

TYPES OF ESCC PROGRAMS.

Many people think of employer-sponsored child care simply as a child care center at the workplace; but employers are offering their workers several different types of child care support programs (See Chart B, Appendix).

Flexible personnel policies have been developed over the past 10 years. Some examples here may be useful. More detailed information about the companies or organizations offering each type of program may be found in the report of the recent National Employer-Supported Child Care Project (1982). Flextime allows workers to schedule their own hours;

the employer may set core hours when everyone must be at work. For example, workers may be required to be in the office between 9 and 11 every morning, and can design their own schedules around those hours. Some employees may choose to work early -- perhaps 6:30 a.m. to 3:00 -- so they can be home by the time school is out. Flextime works especially well in hospitals, offices and factories open around the clock, or which have peak periods when extra help is needed, as in an accounting department.

Job sharing allows two employees to share a 40-hour workload. Both employees receive prorated benefits, but the employer saves on overtime wages. Job sharing works best when employees with similar work styles are paired, and is being implemented in elementary schools as well as in hospitals and offices. Although job sharers are reported to spend the same amount of time socializing while at work, it has been found that they are less likely to conduct personal business while at work. Necessary phone calls and appointments are less likely to be made on company time.

Flexiplace allows employees to work at home, except for a few core hours or days at the office. For example, a computer program operator in California was reluctant to return to work after the birth of her second child, yet her

employer was reluctant to lose a competent employee. Together, they initiated a flexiplace schedule which allows her to be home with her children. She uses the computer terminal at home, usually late evenings. She has not left the workforce, and will probably return to the workplace full time when her children are older.

Paternity and maternity leave policies are also becoming more responsive to fathers and mothers who choose to spend time at home with their newborn without losing job status or salary. Two surveys by Catalyst received responses from 374 Fortune 500 companies and 815 two-career couples. Results showed that 68% of the women were back at work within four months of giving birth, and that 54% of the companies favored some type of monetary assistance for child care. Although the majority of businesses surveyed feel that men want to share in parenting responsibilities, only 9% of the corporations offer paternity leave. Despite the gap in expressed interest and policy, Catalyst views the responsive corporate attitudes as "the recognition that precedes change" (Catalyst, 1981), p.6. The Ford Foundation and Procter and Gamble are among the organizations currently offering sensitive leave policies.

Flexible benefit programs, also known as "cafeteria" plans, allow employees to choose the benefits they need most.

Some choices include vacation days, dental, medical and disability coverage, child care assistance, pension funds and savings plans. On the average, over 36% of a company's payroll is spent on providing employee benefits (Brenners, 1981). Employers have been slow to respond with new benefit programs because of concerns about administrative costs and equity -- providing equally for all employees. However, TRW, Educational Testing Service and American Can Company have successfully pioneered innovative employee benefit programs with today's dual-income family in mind.

Employers can support existing child care programs by donating services, such as secretarial, janitorial or legal. Cash donations are usually short term and charitable, while the donation of space, equipment or services are considered in-kind contributions.

Resource and referral, or R & R, helps parents locate and arrange child care within existing community centers or day care homes. The R & R service provides information and resources for parents and caregivers. According to Muriel (1980), approximately 6300 companies in the U.S. are providing resource and referral services. An employer can hire staff members to provide resource and referral services, or contract with an independent agency. R & R helps identify current employee child care needs, is relatively inexpensive,

and can be offered alone or in combination with other types of employer-sponsored child care. Some examples of successful resource and referral programs include Steelcase of Grand Rapids, National Semi-Conductor, Honeywell and Mountain Bell in Denver.

Slot reservation enables an employer to reserve slots, or openings, in local child care programs by paying a holding fee to the provider. This often helps to alleviate a new employee's concern about finding child care services within a community, so may enhance recruiting and transfer of employees. The Child Care Assurance Plan in Orlando and Sunnyvale Services in California include this service in their programs.

Voucher/vendor programs work best in communities with ample child care facilities. A vendor program usually combines slot reservation with a voucher system, and the employer chooses the child care provider. In a voucher program, parents retain responsibility for the choice of child care arrangements, and the employer pays a percentage of the cost based on the employee's income and family size. This subsidy is paid by voucher to the care provider, or reimbursed to the employee. The Ford Foundation and Polaroid have successfully operated voucher programs for over 10 years.

A family day care home network coordinates, sponsors and administers several day care homes. An employer may establish a network of family day care homes, or contract with an independent network. Home networks help locate, train and register home care providers, and then serve as a resource and support system for the caregivers. The network system helps guarantee reliable care for employees preferring home care, or who need sick child, infant or evening care. Examples of employer-supported nome networks include the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Cross Cultural of San Francisco.

An employer-sponsored child care center at or near the worksite is the most direct form of employer support and probably the most expensive. A center may be designed and administered by the employer, or by contract with an outside proprietary or non-profit group. An employer may establish and operate the center alone, as Corning in New York and Intermedics in Freeport, Texas; or join a consortium to share the costs with other employers, as the Downtown Day Care Center in St. Louis and Northside Child Development Center in Minneapolis. The center option is most popular with employers who need to attract and retain a highly skilled or specialized workforce, those who employ large numbers of women, and those who see the center as a contri-

bution to the community. However, because 82% of the work-site centers which opened between 1964 and 1974 have closed (Perry, 1978), today's employers are also considering alternative options available to them, and may adopt more than one program at a time.

TYPES OF EMPLOYERS.

A variety of types of employers are currently sponsoring child care initiatives in the United States (See Chart C, Appendix). Characteristic of the employers offering child care initiatives is their willingness to share with other employers information about their experience.

The military, as an employer, has long offered child-related services to enlisted families. Recently, the United States Air Force, Army, Navy and Marines have developed Military Child Care Projects designed to upgrade and diversify child care services offered on military bases. Increasing numbers of single parents, as well as working mothers, have underscored the need for more and better child care. High priority has been given to staff development for child care workers and to program evaluation. Program models for sick child, infant, after school and 24-hour care are being studied and implemented. Child care services in the military vary according to needs on individual military bases. Care

provided is generally less expensive for the parents than comparable civilian care. An important aspect of military child care services is that the services are considered part of a family support system.

(Campus.) There are approximately 600 universities and colleges in America currently offering day care services to their employees. Campus child care services have often been excluded from surveys of employer-sponsored child care because of their role in teacher training and research, and because they serve children of students as well as employees. However, these programs have been instrumental in documenting optimal child development practices, and often provide model parenting education programs. They also serve as a model for center care with ongoing inservice training of caregivers. Universities and colleges first sponsored half-day nursery school programs in 1919 (Eliot in Hymes, 1978), and have added day care programs for infants, preschool, and school-age children as the need for child care and research has increased. The result has been a re-emphasis on care to meet the developmental needs of the whole child rather than merely providing custodial care. Truly high quality care -- meaning care which meets optimal parental and professional standards as well as the minimal licensing requirements, is likely to be found where the program focus is on children's

development and where parent/caregiver communication is high.

The purpose of a labor union is collective bargaining for wages, hours and working conditions. However, a number of membership services have been included by some unions within the past 15 years. Most well-known is the Amalgamted Clothing and Textile Workers Union, which pioneered in offering its members direct child care programs. Amalgamated membership includes a high percentage of women, and currently supports six child care centers in four states. Union negotiations may initiate joint labor-management committees to investigate the feasibility of child care-related employee benefits. For example, the Service Employees International Union AFL-CIO, CLC, negotiations with Kaiser Permanente of Southern California resulted in a feasability study committee and subsequent hiring of a staff person to coordinate a child care program.

Government offices and agencies employ large numbers of workers at all levels of government and offer working parents direct and indirect child care support programs. Programs vary by location and employee needs. The government agencies which sponsor child care centers usually provide space, building facilities, maintenance and other services, and the programs operate with parent/employee Boards of Directors. One of the most recent employer-sponsored programs is for

the employees of San Diego County in need of child care services for 2- to 5-year olds.

Many hospitals are offering employer-supported child care to recruit and retain hospital personnel, especially due to a shortage of nurses nationwide. Flextime, family day care home networks and vendor/voucher systems are popular with hospitals located in communities with adequate child care services available. The number of child care centers sponsored by hospitals has grown in the United States primarily in areas needing nursing staff and round the clock child care services. A pioneer in hospital-sponsored centers is the Laurance Armour Day School which opened in Chicago in 1970. The center flourishes not only because of high staff and program standards, but because of operating standards well above the minimum. The center maintains good communication with hospital departments, and offers the child care staff a benefits package conducive to professional growth and longer service.

(Industry.) Businesses both large and small are gradually becoming more aware of the pressures on working parents and are beginning to respond. Recently, the National Employer Supported Child Care Project in Pasadena surveyed employers nationwide and has identified at least 415 programs

receiving employer support within industry -- including hospitals, labor unions and government agencies. This study was designed to stimulate interest and action among employers, and to generate hard data for cost-benefit analysis. Within industry, the numbers and types of employer supported programs vary widely, depending upon the individual needs, resources and structure of each company. Some companies offer more than one type of program. For example, Official Airlines Guide Company in Chicago has used flextime for ten years, and has added an onsite child care program.

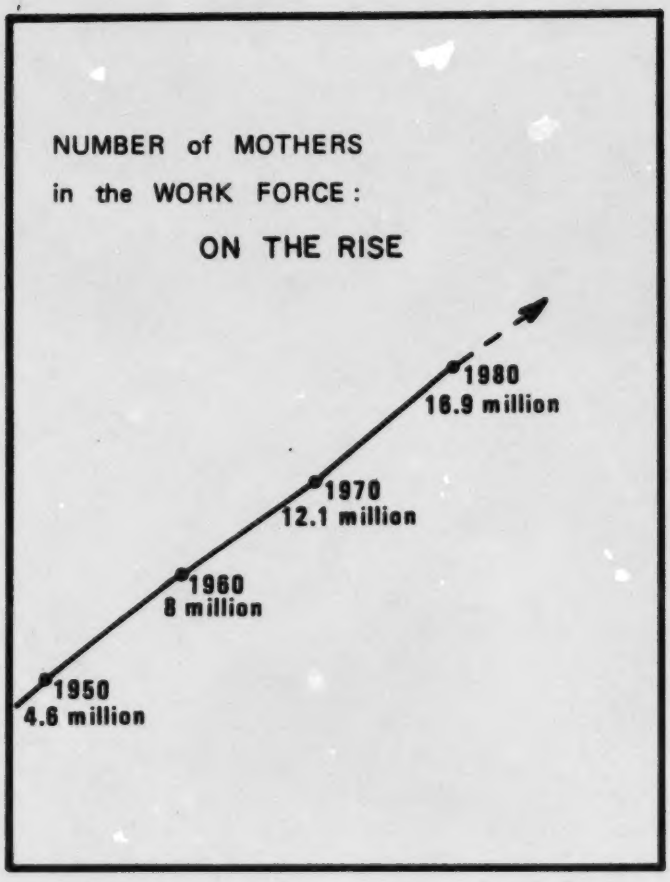
CONCLUSION.

Employer support for families with child care needs is not a new idea. It is receiving renewed national attention as mothers join the workforce in increasing numbers and the demand for child care grows. Today, employers, employees and child care professionals are beginning to work together to meet the needs of working parents and their children. Six types of employers are taking initiatives in helping parents secure acceptable, available, affordable child care. The programs vary widely, and are most likely to be found where there is a need to recruit and retain groups of specifically skilled workers, where women are employed in large numbers, where employers are concerned with employee

child care needs and are motivated to act on those concerns.

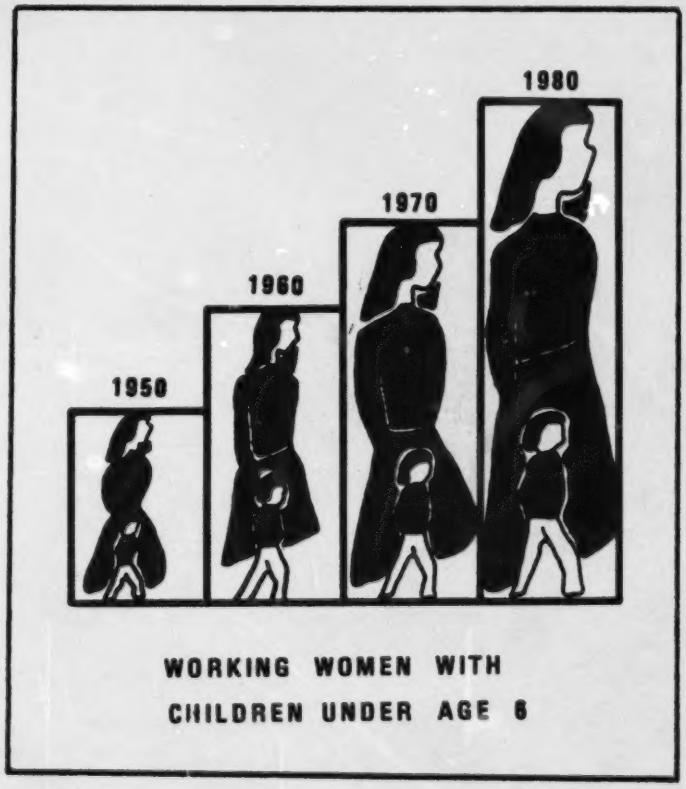
Analyzing child care as a family support system responsive to changing times, Hewes (1982) uses Thomas Kuhn's paradigm theory to describe recent employer-sponsored child care activity. Informed contributions to the literature have provided a base from which new information networks are taking shape. Hewes acknowledges the leadership of Kathryn Senn Perry, Dana Friedman and Gwenn Morgan, and her work stimulates the question: To what extent are employer-sponsored initiatives viable and what realistic predictions can be made? Of course, this leads to another issue not yet addressed in the literature: What effects, if any, will employer sponsorship have upon the field of early childhood education and what are the implications for change in the status and working conditions of child care workers? The issues are complex; simple answers remain to be seen.

APPENDIX

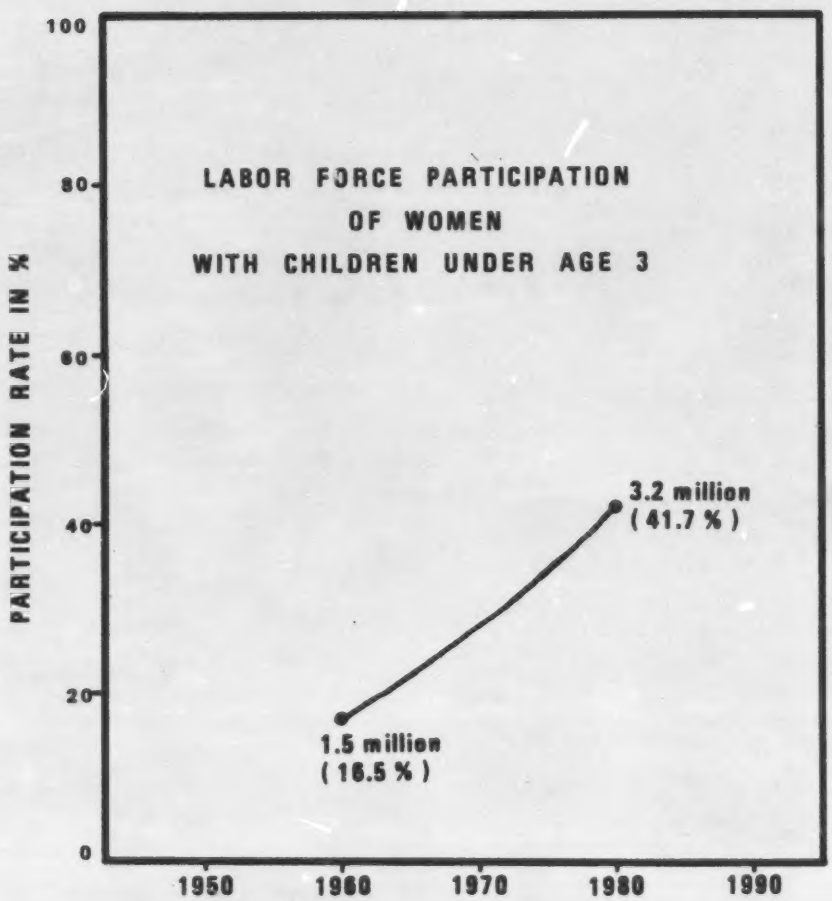


Graph A. Source: Children's Defense Fund, 1982.

APPENDIX



Graph B. Source: Children's Defense Fund, 1982.



Graph C. Source: Children's Defense Fund, 1982.

13 MILLION CHILDREN UNDER AGE 14
WITH PARENTS WORKING FULLTIME

Graph D. Source: Children's Defense Fund, 1982.

'In 1980, there were just over one million spaces in licensed child care centers and family day care homes for the 7.5 million children under six years who needed them.' (U.S. Dept. of Labor)
7.5 MILLION CHILDREN
1 MILLION AVAILABLE PLACES

Graph E. Source: U.S. Department of Labor, 1980.

APPENDIX

Expected benefits to employer providing ESCC:

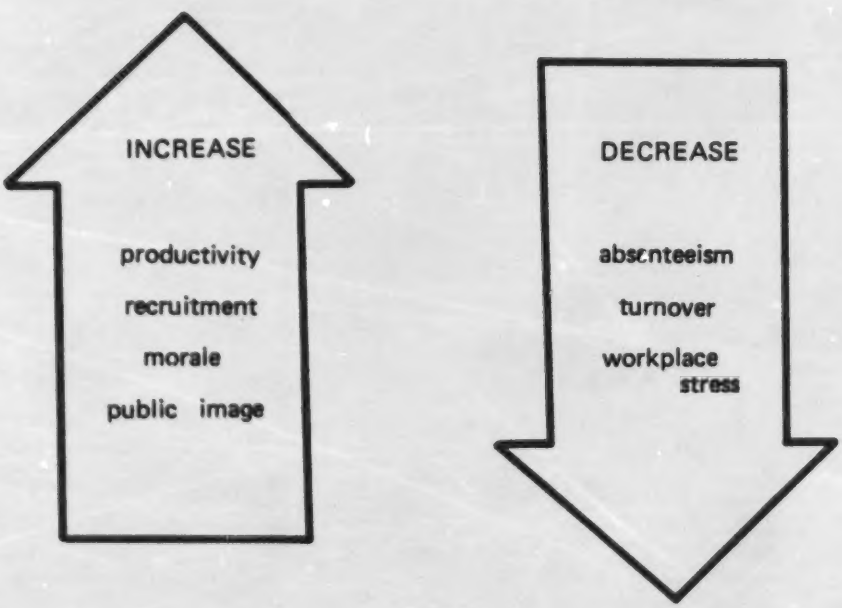


Chart A. Expected benefits.

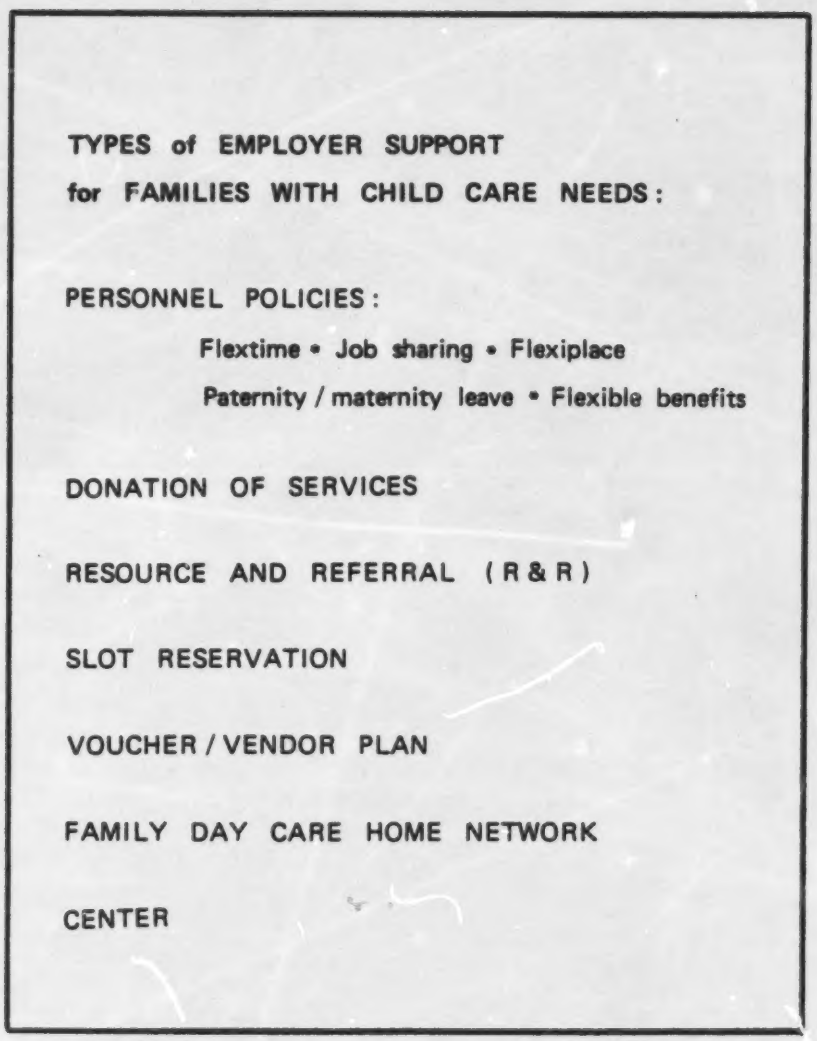

TYPES of EMPLOYER SUPPORT
for FAMILIES WITH CHILD CARE NEEDS:
PERSONNEL POLICIES:
Flextime • Job sharing • Flexiplace
Paternity / maternity leave • Flexible benefits
DONATION OF SERVICES
RESOURCE AND REFERRAL (R&R)
SLOT RESERVATION
VOUCHER / VENDOR PLAN
FAMILY DAY CARE HOME NETWORK
CENTER

Chart B. Types of Employer Support.

APPENDIX

EMPLOYERS CURRENTLY SPONSORING CHILD CARE INITIATIVES IN THE UNITED STATES :

MILITARY

COLLEGE & UNIVERSITY CAMPUS

LABOR UNION

LOCAL, STATE, FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

HOSPITAL

INDUSTRY

Chart C. Types of Employers.

Bibliography

Baden, C. Work and family: an annotated bibliography, 1978-1980. Boston: Wheelock College Center for Parenting Studies, 1981.

Baden, C., & Friedman, D. E. (Eds.), New management initiatives for working parents. Boston: Wheelock College, Office of Continuing Education, 1981.

Best, K. Day care with a difference. Community Focus, United Way newsletter, February, 1981, pp. 2-8.

Big business and day care. Life, 1971, 29(2), 224-225.

Breitbart, V. The day care book: the why, what and how of community day care. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1974.

Brenners, L. Those benefits are no longer 'fringe.' Los Angeles Times, June 29, 1981 (3, Pt. 4).

Bronfenbrenner, U. Developmental research, public policy, and the ecology of childhood. Child Development, 1974, 45, 1-5.

Canon, B. Child care where you work. Ms. Magazine, April 1978, pp. 83-86.

Carmony, D. F., & Elliott, J. M. New Harmony: Robert Owen's seedbed for Utopia. Indiana Magazine of History, 1980, 76, 161-262.

Child care assurance plan, Community Coordinated Child Care for Central Florida, Inc. Orlando, April 1981.

Child care grows as a benefit. Business Week, December 1981, pp. 60-61.

Children's world. Company-assisted employee child care programs. Evergreen, Colorado: Children's World, Inc., 1981.

Collins, N. M. (Ed.). Business and child care handbook. Minneapolis, Minn.: The Business and Child Care Project, GMDCA, 1982.

Conable bill would benefit middle-income families. Day Care & Child Development Reports, 1981, 10(5), 2-3.

Corporations and two-career families: Directions for the future. New York: Catalyst, 1981.

Creed, B. B., & Solomon, D. G. Summary of federal and California tax provisions relating to child care for and after 1982. San Francisco: Bay Area Child Care Law Project, 1981.

Dennison, G. The lives of children: The story of the First Street School. New York: Random House, 1969.

Dietsch, C. Employer-supported child care: A survey and analysis of business/union assisted child care. (Doctoral dissertation, Bowling Green State University, 1982.)

Employed parents and their children: A data book. Washington, D.C.: Children's Defense Fund, 1982.

Employer-sponsored child care: A compendium of information. Day Care Special Report, Day Care Information Service, March 1982.

Erikson, E. Childhood and society. New York: W. W. Norton, 1950.

Featherstone, J. The day care problem: Kentucky fried children. The New Republic, 1970, 163, 12-16.

Federal agencies in day care. Washington, D. C.: Women's Bureau, 1978, 1980.

Fein, G., & Clarke-Stewart, A. Day care in context. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1973.

Fooner, A. The bottom line on day care. Inc., May 1981, pp. 94-102.

Friedman, D. E. Employer Child Care, Child Care Information Exchange, 1980, Number 16.

Friendly, M., & Johnson, L. C. Perspectives on work-related day care. Child in the City Report, University of Toronto, 1981, No. 11. ERIC Document.

Garbarino, J. A preliminary study of some ecological correlates of child abuse: The impact of socioeconomic stress on mothers. Child Development, 1976, 47, 178-185.

Gallese, L. R. Moms and pops get break as employers sponsor day care. Wall Street Journal, June 9, 1980.

General policy statement, Toddler Inn, St. Elizabeth Medical Center, Covington, Kentucky. Effective, November 8, 1981.

Gifford, L. A community cooperates to build playgrounds. Texas Child Care Quarterly, 1981, Winter, pp. 16-17.

Greenblatt, B. Responsibility for child care. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977.

Grossman, A. S. Special Labor Force Reports--Summaries. Monthly Labor Review, February 1982, pp. 41-43.

Guides for day care licensing. (U.S. DHEW Publication No. (OCD) 73-1053). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, n.d.

Haiman, P. (Ed.). Employer-sponsored day care: An idea whose time has come. Conference on Child Care as an Employee Benefit. San Francisco, California: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, May 1980. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 201 400)

Halpem, R. Assuring quality early childhood service: The challenge ahead. A report on the conference, State Commitments to Young Children (High/Scope Educational Research Foundation), Clinton, Michigan, August 25-28, 1981.

Helping working parents: Child care options for business. State of N. Carolina: Office of the Governor, 1981.

Herbert-Jackson, E., & others. The infant center. Baltimore: University Park Press, 1977.

Hewes, D. W. Employer-supported day care: A Kuhnian perspective. Paper presented at the Symposium on Employer-Supported Day Care, California Professors of Early Childhood Education, Sacramento, California, March 1982.

Hofferth, S. L. Day care in the next decade: 1980-1990. Journal of Marriage and the Family, August 1979, pp. 649-656.

Hymes, Jr., J. L. Living history interviews. Carmel, California: Hacienda Press, 1978.

Investing in motherhood. Money, April 1981, p. 14.

Job and family: The walls come down. U.S. News & World Report, June 16, 1980, pp. 57-58.

Johnson, A. H. (Ed.), The wit and wisdom of Alfred North Whitehead. Boston: The Beacon Press, 1947.

Kamerman, S. B., & Kahn, A. J. Child care, family benefits, and working parents: A study in comparative policy. New York: Columbia University Press, 1981.

Kurzweil, K. Industry and day care. Tennessee Public Welfare Record, October 1974, pp. 90-92, 110.

Magid, R. Y. Parents and employers: New partners in child care. Management Review, 1982, 71(3), pp. 38-44.

Manuel, D. C. The tycoon and the toddler. Graduate Woman, Journal of the American Association of University Women, 1982, 76(5), 17-19.

McCroskey, J. Work and families: What is the employer's responsibility? Personnel Journal, Special Report, January 1982, 30-37.

Mead, M. Working mothers and their children. Childhood Education, 1970, 47(1), 66.

Milkovich, G., & Gomez, L. Day care and selected employee work behaviors. Academy of Management Journal, 1976, 19(1), 111.

Moore, N. C. A rural industry operates a day care center. Tennessee Public Welfare Record, 1969, 32, 15-16.

Morgan, G. Help for employers considering child care. New York: Human Sciences Press. Day Care and Early Education, 1981, 9(1), 7-9.

Murray, K. A. Parents at work: Who'll mind the children? San Francisco Business, October 1981.

Murray, K. A., & Stevenson, C. S. Tax incentives for employer-sponsored day care programs. Chicago: Commerce Clearing House, Inc., 1982.

National Employer-Supported Child Care Project. List of Employer-Supported Programs in the U.S. 1981-82.(Pasadena)

New horizons . . . employment sponsored childcare. Child-care Resource Service Newsletter, 1981, 1(4), 1-3.

Number of 1-parent families doubles. The Bakersfield Californian, June 18, 1982, 96(169), A13.

O'Connell, M., Orr, A. C., & Lueck, M. The children of working mothers. American Demographics, April 1982, 26-31.

Osborn, K. D. Early childhood education in historical perspective. Athens, Georgia: Education Associates, 1980.

Our children our future: Private sector possibilities for helping children in North Carolina. N.C. Department of Administration, Office of Policy and Planning, n.d.

Our neglected kids. U.S. News & World Report, August 9, 1982, pp. 54-58.

Perry, K. S. Child care centers sponsored by employers and labor unions in the United States. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, 1980.

Perry, K. S. Survey and analysis of employer-sponsored day care in the United States. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee, 1978.)

Perry, K. S., & Moore, G. T. Employers and child care: Establishing services throughout the workplace. Pamphlet 23. Washington, D.C.: Women's Bureau, January 1981. (ERIC Document ED 198 950)

Polansky, N. A., & Others. Isolation of the neglectful family. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1979, 49(1), 149-152.

Porter, C. J. Qualitative research in child care (in press). Child Care Quarterly, 1982, 11(1).

Renfroe, M. L. Employer-sponsored child care models and related issues. (Master's thesis, University of Texas at Austin, 1981.) ERIC publication #PS012479.

Robison, D. Working parents choose home-based child care arrangements. World of Work Report, 1977, 2(2):13.

Robins, P. K., & Weiner, S. (Eds.), Child care and public policy. Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1978.

Scherer, M. The loneliness of the latchkey child. Instructor, May 1982, pp. 38-41.

Sidel, R. Women and child care in China. New York: Hill and Wang, 1972.

Silberman, C. Crisis in the classroom. New York: Random House, 1970.

Sitomer, C. J. Who cares for the children? The Christian Science Monitor Reprint, 1981.

Shirley, L. Corporate child care comes of age in '80's. Oakland Tribune, January 1981, D-6-7.

State's grant to boost employer child care: Focus on working poor 'unique.' Day Care & Development Reports, 1981, 10(9).

Steelcase child care resource and referral service. Grand Rapids, Michigan: Steelcasse, Inc., April 1982.

Sternberg, S. The realities of corporate giving. Issues and Strategies. The Journal of the California Child, Youth and Family Coalition, Spring 1981, Part 1.

Swenson, J. Child care goes 'round-the-clock.' The Bakersfield Californian, July 11, 1982.

Swick, K. J., & Rotter, M. F. The work place as a family support system. Day Care and Early Education, Winter 1981, pp. 7-11. Washington, D.C.: Day Care Council of America.

Taking baby to work. McCalls, July 1982, p. 51.

The Corning story: Solving the puzzle of industry-sponsored day care. Booklet. Corning, New York: The Corning Children's Center, 1981.

The National Campaign for Child Daycare for Working Families. Preamble and Platform Statement. Washington, D.C.: National Day Care Campaign, 1980.

The superwoman squeeze. Newsweek, May 19, 1980, pp. 72-79.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Human Development Services, ACYF. Family day care in the United States: Summary of findings. Washington, D.C.: Office of Human Development Services, 1981.

Verzaro-Lawrence, M., & Others. Industry-related day care: Trends and options. Young Children, 1982, 37(2), 4.

Work in America Institute, Inc. When industry sponsors child-care centers. World of Work Report, 1981, 6(10), 6-7.

Wysor, P. H. Who's going to watch the kids? Pittsburgh, May 1982, pp. 44-52.